Calculations for A-level CHEMISTRY

E.N.RAMSDEN

CALCULATIONS FOR A-LEVEL CHEMISTRY



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E8263989

Stanley Thornes (Publishers) Ltd

ROUNDER

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First published in 1982 by Stanley Thornes (Publishers) Ltd, Educa House, Old Station Drive, off Leckhampton Road, Cheltenham GL53 0DN

British Library in Cataloguing in Publication Data

Ramsden, E.N.

Calculations for A-Level chemistry.

1. Chemistry - Mathematics

I. Title

540'.1'51 OD39.3.M3

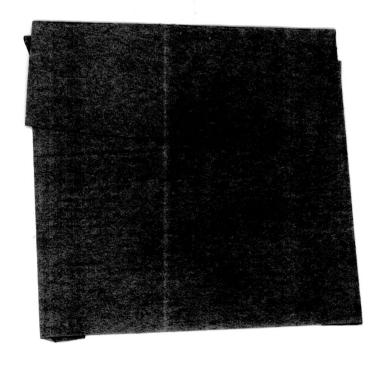
ISBN 0-85950-309-7

CALCULATIONS FOR A-LEVEL CHEMISTRY

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Foreword

It is a common complaint of university and college teachers of physical sciences that many of their incoming students are unable to carry out even simple calculations, although they may appear to have a satisfactory grasp of the underlying subject matter. Moreover, this is by no means a trivial complaint, since inability to solve numerical problems nearly always stems from a failure to understand fundamental principles, rather than from mathematical or computational difficulties. This situation is more likely to arise in chemistry than in physics, since in the latter subject it is much more difficult to avoid quantitative problems and at the same time produce some semblance of understanding.

In attempting to remedy this state of affairs teachers in schools often feel the lack of a single source of well-chosen calculations covering all branches of chemistry. This gap is admirably filled by Dr Ramsden's collection of problems. The brief mathematical introduction serves to remind the student of some general principles, and the remaining sections cover the whole range of chemistry. Each section contains a theoretical introduction, followed by worked examples and a large number of problems, some of them from past examination papers. Since answers are also given, the book will be equally useful in schools and in home study. It should make a real contribution towards improving the facility and understanding of students of chemistry in their last years at school and in the early part of their university or college courses.

R P Bell FRS

Honorary Research Professor, University of Leeds, and formerly Professor of Chemistry, University of Stirling

Preface

Many topics in Chemistry involve numerical problems. Textbooks are not long enough to include sufficient problems to give students the practice which they need in order to acquire a thorough mastery of calculations. This book aims to fill that need.

Chapter 1 is a quick revision of mathematical techniques, with special reference to the use of the calculator, and some hints on how to tackle chemical calculations. With each topic, a theoretical background is given, leading to worked examples and followed by a large number of problems and a selection of questions from past examination papers. The theoretical section is not intended as a full treatment, to replace a textbook, but is included to make it easier for the student to use the book for individual study as well as for class work. The inclusion of answers is also an aid to private study.

The material will take students up to GCE A- and S-level examinations. It will also serve the needs of students preparing for the Ordinary National Diploma. A few of the topics covered are not in the A-level syllabuses of all the Examination Boards, and it is expected that students will be sufficiently familiar with the syllabus they are following to omit material outside their course if they wish. S-level topics and the more difficult calculations are marked with an asterisk.

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Acknowledgements

I thank the following examination boards for permission to print questions from recent A-level papers.

The Associated Examining Board

The Joint Matriculation Board

The Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board

The Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations

The Southern Universities Joint Board

The University of Cambridge Schools Local Examinations Syndicate

The University of London School Examinations Council

The Welsh Joint Education Committee

Many numerical values have been taken from the *Chemistry Data Book* by J G Stark and H G Wallace (published by John Murray). For help with definitions and physical constants, reference has been made to *Physico-chemical Quantities and Units* by M L McGlashan (published by The Royal Institute of Chemistry).

I have been fortunate in receiving excellent advice from Professor R R Baldwin, Mr G H Davies, Professor W C E Higginson, Dr K A Holbrook, Dr R B Moyes and Dr J R Shorter. I thank these chemists for the help they have given me. I am indebted to Mr J P D Taylor for checking the answers to the problems and for many valuable comments and corrections.

I thank Stanley Thornes (Publishers) for their collaboration and my family for their encouragement.

EN Ramsden Hull 1982

Contents

Acknowledgements

List of Exercises

1 Basic Mathematics

Preface

Foreword by Professor R P Bell FRS

	Introduction 1 — working with numbers in standard form 1 — estimating your answer 2—logarithms 3—antilogarithms 4—rounding off numbers 4—choice of a calculator 6—units 6—solution of quadratic equations 8—drawing graphs 8—a final point 9
2	The Mole Definitions 11 – calculation of molar mass 12 – empirical formulae 13 molecular formulae 14 – percentage composition 14 – calculations based on chemical equations 16 – reacting volumes of gases 19 – percentage yield 24 – limiting reactant 25 – deriving the equation for a reaction 26
3	Volumetric Analysis Concentration 30 – acid-base titrations 30 – oxidation-reduction reactions 38 – potassium manganate (VII) titrations 45 – potassium dichromate (VI) titrations 49 – sodium thiosulphate titrations 49 – complexometric titrations 57 – precipitation titrations 59
4	The Atom Mass spectrometry 65 – nuclear reactions 68 65
5	Gases The gas laws 70 – Boyle's law 70 – Charles' law 70 – the equation of state for an ideal gas 70 – Graham's law of diffusion 72 – Gay-Lussac's law 75 – Avogadro's law 75 – the gas molar volume 76 – Dalton's law of partial pressures 77 – Henry's law 78 – the ideal gas equation 79 – the kinetic theory of gases 80
6	Liquids Determination of molar mass 85 – anomalous results from measurements of molar mass 86 – vapour pressure 90 – solutions of liquids in liquids 91 – immiscible liquids: sum of vapour pressures 93 – distribution of a solute between two immiscible solvents 95

vii

ix

xiii

7	Solutions of Solids in Liquids: Colligative Properties Lowering of the vapour pressure of a solvent by a solute 105 tion of the boiling point of a solvent by a solute 108—depre the freezing point of a solvent by a solute 110—osmotic 112—anomalous results from molar mass determination from tive properties 114	ession of
8	Electrochemistry Electrolysis 121 – evolution of gases 122 – electrolytic cond 125 – molar conductivity and concentration 127 – calcular solubility from conductivity 128 – ionic equilibria; weak elect 129 – calculation of the degree of dissociation and the dissociation of a weak electrolyte from conductance measureme – calculation of pH, pOH and pK 132 – buffer solutions 14 hydrolysis 144 – complex ion formation 146 – solubilit solubility product 147 – the common ion effect 149 – el potentials 153 – galvanic cells 154	tion of trolytes ociation nts 130 0 — salt
9	Thermochemistry Internal energy and enthalpy 162 – standard enthalpy for a chemical reaction 163 – standard enthalpy of neutralisation 164 – standard enthalpy of combustion 166 – finding the standard enthalpy of a compound indirectly 167 – standard enthalpy of reaction from standard enthalpies of formation 169 – standard bond dissociation enthalpies 171 – average standard bond enthalpies 171 – standard enthalpy of reaction from average standard bond enthalpies 172 – the Born-Haber cycle 174 – free energy and entropy 180 – calculation of change in standard entropy 181 – calculation of change in standard free energy 182	
10	Reaction Kinetics Reaction rate 192 – the effect of concentration on rate of reaction 193 – order of reaction 194 – first-order reactions 194 – half-life 194 – pseudo-first-order reactions 195 – second-order reactions with reactants of equal concentrations 195 – zero-order reactions 196 – the effect of temperature on reaction rate 196 – summary 201	
11	Equilibria Chemical equilibrium 215 — the equilibrium law 215	215
12	Organic Chemistry	225
	Answers to Exercises	235
	Table of Relative Atomic Masses	249
	Periodic Table of the Elements	250
	Logarithms	252
	Antilogarithms	254
	Index	256

List of Exercises

1	Practice with Calculations	10
2	Problems on Empirical and Molecular Formulae and Percentage	
	Composition	15
3	Problems on Reacting Masses of Solids	18
4	Problems on Reacting Volumes of Gases	22
5	Problems on Reactions involving Solids and Gases	23
6	Problems on Percentage Yield	24
7	Problems on Limiting Reactant	25
8	Problems on Deriving Equations	26
9	Questions from A-level Papers	27
10	Problems on Neutralisation	35
11	Problems on Oxidation Numbers	43
12	Problems on Redox Reactions	54
13	Problems on Complexometric Titrations	59
14	Problems on Precipitation Reactions	60
15	Questions from A-level Papers	61
16	Problems on Mass Spectrometry	66
17	Questions from A-level Papers	67
18	Problems on Nuclear Reactions	68
19	Questions from A-level Papers	69
20	Problems on Gas Volumes	72
21	Problems on Diffusion and Effusion	73
22	Problems on Gas Molar Volume	76
23	Problems on Partial Pressures of Gases	77
24	Problems on Solubility of Gases	79
25	Problems on the Kinetic Theory and the Ideal Gas Equation	81
26	Questions from A-level Papers	82
27	Problems on Molar Masses of Volatile Liquids	88
28	Problems on Association and Dissociation	90
29	Problems on Vapour Pressures of Liquids	91
30	Problems on Vapour Pressures of Solutions of Two Liquids	93
31	Problems on Steam Distillation	95
32	Problems on Partition	99
33	Questions from A-level Papers	100
34	Problems on Vapour Pressure Lowering	107
35	Problems on Boiling Point Elevation	110
36	Problems on Freezing Point Depression	111
37	Problems on Freezing Point Depression and Boiling Point	
	Elevation	111
38	Problems on Osmotic Pressure	113
39	Problems on Electrolytes	116
10	Questions from A-level Papers	118
41	Problems on Electrolysis	123

42	Problems on Conductivity	126
43	Problems on Molar Conductivity	131
44	Problems on pH	138
45	Problems on Buffers	142
46	Problems on Salt Hydrolysis	145
47	Problems on Complex Ions	147
48	Problems on Solubility Products	151
49	Problems on Standard Electrode Potentials	156
50	Questions from A-level Papers	157
51	Problems on Standard Enthalpy of Neutralisation	165
52	Problems on Standard Enthalpy of Combustion	166
53	Problems on Standard Enthalpy of Reaction and Average Standar	4 100
	Bond Enthalpies	ີ 175
54	Problems on Standard Entropy Change and Standard Free Energy	1/3
	Change	183
55	Questions from A-level Papers	185
56	Problems on Finding the Order of Reaction	202
57	Problems on First-order Reactions	204
58	Problems on Second-order Reactions	205
59	Problems on Radioactive Decay	206
60	Problems on Rates of Reaction	207
61	Problems on Activation Energy	209
62	Questions from A-level Papers	209
63	Problems on Equilibria	219
64	Questions from A-level Papers	221
65	Problems on Organic Chemistry	227
66	Questions from A-level Papers	229

Questions from A-level papers are on the immediately preceding topic(s). Each question is appended with the name of the Examination Board and the year (80 = 1980 etc). p indicates a part question, S an S-level question and N a Nuffield syllabus. The most difficult (often S-level) questions are also denoted by an asterisk.

ABBREVIATIONS OF EXAMINATION BOARDS

AEB	Associated Examining Board
C	University of Cambridge Schools Local Examinations
	Syndicate
L	University of London Schools Examinations Council
JMB	Joint Matriculation Board
O	Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations
O & C	Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examinations Board
SUJB	Southern Universities' Joint Board
WJEC	Welsh Joint Education Committee

1 Basic Mathematics

INTRODUCTION

Calculations are a part of your Chemistry course. To some students, they are a source of distress and dismay. To other students, they give the tremendous satisfaction of knowing that a problem has been solved, a correct answer obtained, and full marks gained for that question — a feat which it is not easy to achieve on other types of question!

Calculations are not just an extra activity: the time you spend on calculations will be richly rewarded. Your perception of Chemistry will become at the same time deeper and more precise. No one can come to an understanding of science without acquiring the sharp, logical approach that is needed for solving numerical problems.

To succeed in solving numerical problems you need two things. The first is an understanding of the Chemistry involved. The second is some facility in simple mathematics. Calculations are a perfectly straightforward matter. A numerical problem gives you some data and asks you to obtain some other numerical values. The connection between the data you are given and the information you are asked for is a chemical relationship. You will need to know your Chemistry to recognise what that relationship is.

This introduction is a reminder of some of the mathematics which you studied earlier in your school career. It is included for the sake of students who are not studying mathematics concurrently with their Chemistry course. A few problems are included to help you to brush up your mathematical skills before you go on to tackle the chemical problems.

WORKING WITH NUMBERS IN STANDARD FORM

You are accustomed to writing numbers in decimal notation, for example 123 677.54 and 0.001 678. In working with large numbers and small numbers, you will find it convenient to write them in a different way, known as scientific notation or standard form. This means writing a number as a product of two factors. In the first factor, the decimal point comes after the first digit. The second factor is a multiple of ten. For example, $2123 = 2.123 \times 10^3$ and $0.000\ 167 = 1.67 \times 10^{-4}$. 10^3 means $10 \times 10 \times 10$, and 10^{-4} means $1/(10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10)$. The number 3 or -4 is called the exponent, and the number 10 is the base. 10^3 is referred to as '10 to the power 3'

or '10 to the third power'. You will have noticed that, if the exponent is increased by 1, the decimal point must be moved one place to the right.

$$2.5 \times 10^3 = 0.25 \times 10^4 = 25 \times 10^2 = 250 \times 10^1 = 2500 \times 10^0$$

Since $10^0 = 1$, this last factor is normally omitted.

When you multiply numbers in standard form, the exponents are added. The product of 2×10^4 and 6×10^{-2} is given by

$$(2 \times 10^4) \times (6 \times 10^{-2}) = (2 \times 6) \times (10^4 \times 10^{-2})$$

= $12 \times 10^2 = 1.2 \times 10^3$

In division, the exponents are subtracted:

$$\frac{1.44 \times 10^6}{4.50 \times 10^{-2}} = \frac{1.44}{4.50} \times \frac{10^6}{10^{-2}} = 0.320 \times 10^8 = 3.20 \times 10^7$$

In addition and subtraction, it is convenient to express numbers using the same exponents. An example of addition is

$$(6.300 \times 10^2) + (4.00 \times 10^{-1}) = (6.300 \times 10^2) + (0.00400 \times 10^2)$$

= 6.304×10^2

An example of subtraction is

$$(3.60 \times 10^{-3}) - (4.20 \times 10^{-4}) = (3.60 \times 10^{-3}) - (0.420 \times 10^{-3})$$

= 3.18×10^{-3}

ESTIMATING YOUR ANSWER

One advantage of standard form is that very large and very small numbers can be entered on a calculator. Another advantage is that you can easily estimate the answer to a calculation to the correct order of magnitude (i.e. the correct power of 10).

For example,

$$\frac{2456 \times 0.0123 \times 0.00414}{5223 \times 60.7 \times 8.51}$$

Putting the numbers into standard form gives

$$\frac{2.456 \times 10^{3} \times 1.23 \times 10^{-2} \times 4.14 \times 10^{-3}}{5.223 \times 10^{3} \times 6.07 \times 10 \times 8.51}$$

This is approximately

$$\frac{2 \times 1 \times 4}{5 \times 6 \times 8} \times \frac{10^{3} \times 10^{-2} \times 10^{-3}}{10^{3} \times 10} = \frac{1}{30} \times 10^{-6} = 3 \times 10^{-8}$$

By putting the numbers into standard form, you can estimate the answer very quickly. A complete calculation gives the answer 4.64×10^{-8} . The rough estimate is sufficiently close to this to reassure you that you have not made any slips with exponents of ten.

LOGARITHMS

The logarithm (or 'log') of a number N is the power to which 10 must be raised to give the number.

If N = 1, then since $10^0 = 1$, $\lg N = 0$. If N = 100, then since $10^2 = 100$, $\lg N = 2$. If N = 0.001, then since $10^{-3} = 0.001$, $\lg N = -3$.

We say that the logarithm of 100 to the base 10 is 2 or $\lg 100 = 2$.

There is another widely used set of logarithms to the base e. They are called natural logarithms as e is a significant quantity in mathematics. It has the value 2.71828... Natural logarithms are written as $\ln N$. The relationship between the two systems is

$$\ln N = \ln 10 \times \lg N$$

Since ln 10 = 2.3026, for most purposes it is sufficiently accurate to write

$$\ln N = 2.303 \lg N$$

Whenever scientific work gives an equation in which $\ln N$ appears, you can substitute 2.303 times the value of $\lg N$.

You will need to obtain the logs of numbers which are not integral powers of 10 (like 10^3 and 10^{-4}). There are two ways of doing this. One is to enter the number on your calculator and press the log key. The value of the log will appear in the display. This will happen whether you enter the number in standard form or another form. For example, $\lg 12\ 345 = 4.0915$, whether you enter the number as $12\ 345$ or as 1.2345×10^4 . However, there is a limit to the number of digits your calculator will accept, and you need to enter very large and very small numbers in standard notation.

The other way of finding a log is to look it up in a set of log tables. Write the number in standard form, e.g. 2×10^3 .

Then
$$\lg (2 \times 10^3) = \lg 2 + \lg 10^3 = 0.3010 + 3 = 3.3010$$

You know that $\lg 10^3$ is 3, and you find out that $\lg 2 = 0.3010$ from the tables. 3 is called the *characteristic* and 0.3010 is called the *mantissa* of the logarithm. The \log of 2×10^{-6} has a characteristic of -6 and a mantissa of 0.3010. It is written as $\overline{6.3010}$ or as -5.6990. Your calculator will display it as -5.6990.

Operations on logarithms are:

Multiplication. The logs of the numbers are added:

$$\lg (A \times B) = \lg A + \lg B$$

Division. The logs are subtracted:

$$\lg (P/Q) = \lg P - \lg Q$$

Powers. This is a special case of multiplication.

$$lgA^{2} = lgA + lgA = 2 lgA$$

$$lgA^{-3} = -3 lgA$$

Roots. It is easy to show that $\lg \sqrt{B} = \frac{1}{2} \lg B$.

Since

$$B = B^{1/2} \times B^{1/2}$$

$$\lg B = \lg B^{1/2} + \lg B^{1/2}$$

$$\lg B^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \lg B$$

$$\lg \sqrt[3]{B} = \frac{1}{3} \lg B$$

Similarly,

ANTILOGARITHMS

To find a number from the logarithm of that number, you look up the mantissa in a table of antilogarithms. The number you obtain must be written with one digit in front of the decimal point. The mantissa 0.5949 gives the number 3.935. The characteristic of the logarithm becomes the exponent of the number. Thus the antilog of 3.5949 is 3.935×10^3 .

Your calculator will give you the antilog of a number. You should consult the manual to find out the procedure for your own model of calculator.

Most calculators will give you reciprocals, squares and other powers, square roots and other roots directly. If you have a simpler form of calculator, you can obtain powers and roots by using logarithms.

ROUNDING OFF NUMBERS

Often your calculator will display an answer containing more digits than the numbers you fed into it. Suppose you are given the information that 18.6 cm³ of sodium hydroxide solution exactly neutralise 25.0 cm³ of a solution of hydrochloric acid of concentration 0.100 mol dm⁻³. You want to find the concentration of sodium hydroxide solution, and you put the numbers (25.0×0.100)/18.6 into your calculator and obtain a value of 0.134 408 6 mol dm⁻³. The concentration of the solution is not known as accurately as this, however, because you cannot read the burette as accurately as this.

Since you read the burette to three figures, you quote your answer to three figures. In the number 0.134 408 6, the figures you are sure of are termed the *significant figures*. The significant figures are retained, and the insignificant figures are dropped. This operation is called *rounding off*. If the first number had been 0.134 708 6, it would have been rounded off to 0.135. If the first of the insignificant figures being dropped is 5 or greater, the last of the significant figures is rounded up to the next digit. If the first of the dropped figures is less than 5, the last significant figure is left unaltered.

Some calculations involve several stages. It is sound practice to give one more significant figure in your answer at each stage than the number of significant figures in the data. Then, in the final stage, the answer is rounded off.

If the calculation were $(25.0 \times 0.100)/26.2 = 0.09541984 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$, would you still round off to 3 significant figures? This would make the answer $0.0954 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$. Stated in this way, the answer is claiming an accuracy of 1 part in 954 - about 1 part in 1000. Since the hydrochloric acid concentration is known to about 1 part in 100, the answer cannot be stated to a higher degree of accuracy. You have to use the 3-significant-figure rule sensibly, and say that an error of ± 1 in 95 is about as significant as an error of ± 1 in 134. The answer should therefore be quoted as $0.095 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$.

The number of significant figures is the number of figures which is accurately known. The number 123 has 3 significant figures. The number 1.23×10^4 has 3 significant figures, but $12\,300$ has 5 significant figures because the final zeros mean that each of these digits is known to be zero and not some other digit. The number $0.001\,23$ has 3 significant figures. The number 25.1 has 3 significant figures, and the number 25.10 has 4 significant figures as the final 0 states that the value of this number is known to an accuracy of 1 part in 2500.

In addition, the sum is known with the accuracy of the least reliable numbers in the sum. For example, the sum of

$$\begin{array}{r}
1.4167 \text{ g} \\
+100.5 \quad \text{g} \\
+7.12 \quad \text{g} \\
\hline
109.0367 \text{ g}
\end{array}$$

is

Since 1 figure is known to only 1 place after the decimal point, the sum also is known to 1 place after decimal point and should be written as 109.0 g. The same guideline is used for subtraction.

In multiplication and division the product or quotient is rounded off to the same number of significant figures as the number with the fewest significant figures. For example, $12\,340\times2.7\times0.003\,65 = 121.6107$. The product is rounded off to 2 significant figures, 1.2×10^2 .